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The Canadian Welfare Council

Was founded in Ottawa, in 1920, as the result of a National Conference of Child Welfare Workers, convened by the Child Welfare Division, Dominion Department of Health.

OBJECT

- (1) To create throughout the Dominion of Canada an informed public opinion on problems in the field of social welfare.
- (2) To assist in the promotion of standards and services which are based on scientific principles and which have been proved effective in practical experience.

METHODS

- (1) The preparation and publication of literature, arrangement of lectures, addresses, radio and film material, etc., and general educational propaganda in social welfare.
 - (2) Conference
-) FRIG Statics en
- 4) Rosearch.

MEMBERSHIP

The membership falls into two groups, organization and individual

- (1) Organization membership shall be open to any organization, institution or group having the progress of Canadian Social Welfare wholly or in part included in their programme, article of incorporation, or other statement of incorporation.
- (2) Individual membership shall be open to any individual interested in or engaged in welfare work, upon payment of the fee, whether that individual is in work, under any government to Canada, or not.

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 2. National Organizations.
 3. Provincial Organizations.
 4. Municipal Organizations.
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 4. Annual Fee, \$ 2.00 Representatives: 1

In electing the Governing Board and the Executive, all members will be grouped according to their registration by the Treasurer.

Every member will receive a copy of the proceedings of the Annual Conference and such other tree publications as may be published from time to time.





The King

—Symbol of Our National Life

E OFFER A MAN of impeccable decency, a family man of worth and dignity, who treads daily the paths of duty with the gallantry and the grace of a true gentleman.

We offer you King George VI of England.

Upon this man, one Albert Frederick Arthur George Windsor, a common man of honorable bearing, descends the responsibility, terrible in its import, of maintaining through the agonizing days and hours of national life the symbol of decency in human behaviour.

To his credit he carries on with character and fine manhood. He took up the burden of that other King, his older brother, and he maintains it day and night.

He represents decent living, the love of home and family, for which all men have battled since the beginning of time. He faces, apparently, the travail of the future with the courage which will eventually overwhelm the false gods of tyranny.

-From The Boston Post.



Welfare in a Democracy

The ESSENCE of democracy is the government of a people by and of themselves. It rests upon the same fundamentals as Christianity—recognition of the sanctity of the individual human life, and, consequently, an inherent regard of man for man in a community of life and responsibility. Under such a concept, human life is not a mere factor in the functioning of the state, to be moulded and used at the state's need and will: rather, the state is the creation and servant of its citizens, its highest purpose the assurance of their wellbeing. And for wellbeing and fair living, a people must be reasonably happy, and for any people to be happy, that people must be free, free above all, from fear. They must be free, not only from the fear of external aggression, but from the fear of those much more insidious forms of aggression which destroy freedom, and, with it, security and happiness, within the State.

For well over a thousand years, the peoples of the British heritage have held this right to a freedom from fear, as of more worth than life itself, and no inheritors, by blood or citizenship, of that tradition, can be happy unless they know that freedom of thought, of worship, of speech and of action—all within the limits which true freedom imposes for its own survival—are as unquestionably theirs as the air they breathe or the sun that warms their day.

But for these freedoms to be of worth, man must also enjoy another freedom, freedom from the fear of insecurity for himself and those dependent upon him, freedom from fear that,—no matter how able or willing he be—honest, self-supporting toil will be denied him, in a changing world, search he ever so doggedly for it, fight he ever so valiantly against idleness and dependency.

He must be free from the further fear, that, if the search for security through his own gainful occupation fail him, the communal strength of his people will fail him.

And he must be free from still another fear, that, if not opportunity, but health, physique, or mentality fail, he will be left with-

This article is the substance of an address given by the Council's director to the Rotary Club, Toronto, and the Canadian Club, Vancouver, and is published by request.

out means of his own. He must feel assurance that if ill, broken, prematurely aged or incapacitated, he will not be discarded like slag on a heap, when all that is of value in the raw material of a vigorous young body or clear and functioning mind has been extracted.

He and his family must be freed from the terror of lacking that minimum of subsistence which will sustain the decency of human life above the level of the beasts.

If a man's freedom in his own governance cannot bring about such equitable distribution of the strength and resources of the community as a whole, as to assure, at least, measures of minimum defence against these fears, then men will gradually mistrust and discard that freedom and its forms of government and institutions of life. They will choose others, no matter how untried or fantastic, which seem to promise the guarantees, that this vaunted freedom has failed to achieve.

Where Freedom Fell

That, after all, is what happened in Italy's surrender to Fascism, in Germany's espousal of Nazism, in the surrender of the short-lived liberalism of Russia to extreme Communism. Freedom. these states, did not fall before direct external aggression: it collapsed from within, in frustration, bewilderment and despair. Freedom became of little worth when it became freedom to suffer and to starve, in a general disintegration of a people who asked only, in the end, some definite and vigorous leadership, anywhere, in any direction, so that it led out of hopelessness and misery. They welcomed the singlessness of purpose and ruthlessness of dictatorship, which offered some change from weary uncertainty and drift. Shortly, even those, who still clung to their freedom and cherished it, fell back before the vigorous organization of leaders who knew where they were going and who had communicated their sense of certainty to the people as a whole.

With the serried strength of those who had thus surrendered freedom behind them, they strode across their own and other lands, and the end is not yet, nor is victory yet, nor yet assured, nor will it be assured until and unless freedom in the democracies can be shown to be synonymous with security to their peoples. That does not mean just security against invasion and conquest.

It means social security for people within the life of the state: if this cannot be assured, and that reasonably soon, the free ways and institutions of life, which we are straining every fibre to defend in armed conflict, will be challenged and overset in social upheaval on the home front of the belligerent and the threatened nations. That state, whose people have the greatest staying power, will emerge victor in this conflict between fundamental attitudes and ways of life. That staying power can no longer be assumed as just inherent in the democratic state. It will only be assured as the resources and highly delicate mechanisms

democracy can be successfully applied to meet the complicated social needs of the day. This will call for wisdom, for courage, and for self-sacrifice on the part of the body politic in the democracies.

Our Internal Defences

Will they, will our own Canadian democracy prove adequate in this time of testing?

They will, if the same consciousness of a vital struggle and the same energy, as are characterizing the state's adaptation to modern warfare on land and sea, and in the are brought to bear in strengthening our internal defences against the strange new pressures on individual life, in the social economy of today. These internal defences are the measures of social security and the social services, public and voluntary, which the responsible citizens of a democracy are willing to provide, of their own effort, to assure the living of life as they want to see it lived. within their own countries.

In the planning of these defences, in their development, in their maintenance and in their actual operation, every citizen can be a member of an Active Service Force. His contribution can be made in any way which his individual resources and inclinations indicate. He can go on active service by definite participation in the creation and operation of necessary services for better living in his own community, in the community of his province, or of the Dominion as a whole; or he can make this contribution one of informing himself, of opening his eyes and his mind, and so, his thought and action, to the changing day in which he lives, and to the needs of that day. He can make his contribution through intelligent thought and the exercise of his free speech, in asking for adequate planning and adaptations to meet these needs in the interests of the people as a whole.

For a democracy is not a democracy that speaks through adequate defences to social need in the great cities, in the well settled areas, in the wealthy centres of a land. The Canadian democracy, to be effective and to be valued, must mean minimum health protection for the mother and child in the new frontiers, educational opportunity for the boy in the fishing villages, reasonable protection for the child in the rough mining, as well as in the prosperous market towns. It must mean that the individual's chance of life, and health, and security does not vary intolerably with his geographic location. A functioning democracy must be so organized as to assure a reasonable minimum of opportunity for the growth of a free, intelligent and strong citizenship throughout all its domain, at all times.

One Salient on the Battle Front

But is the situation in the home defences serious? In the absence of adequate data for the Canadian democracy, evidence may be submitted from the life of a democracy, more closely akin to ours in its economic background than

any other. In the United States, in 1929-30, it was estimated that, on the average, one in 100 of the population was dependent upon some form of social aid; in 1939-40, one in six.* That great and tragic difference in the self-sufficiency of an enormous proportion of the population, where the highest living standard in the world prevailed, represents the inroad upon the free and independent way of life, which the insidious enemies of economic maladjustment, unemployment and dependency, can make within a decade. To the credit of the United States and Canadian democracies, rapidly thrown up emergency works and aid programmes have, so far, held the line; they cannot hold them indefinitely, if the state of siege appears to become the normal way of life. More fundamental adjustments, more permanent plans must be adopted, if democracy is to pass from the defensive to its old aggressive methods of warfare against the enemies of freedom and good living among men.

Select but one salient where the situation threatens on the home front, the problem created by the lack of occupational or establishment opportunities for the generation of young people, particularly young men, who have grown up in the homes of Canada in the last decade. There are tens of thousands of young people across this country, youngsters just entering high school when the so-called depression broke, who have grown

*See Economic Background in Families-Memoranda prepared for the Fourth White

House Conference, Washington, January, 1940.

up into young manhood and young womanhood, in homes where there has been continuous idleness, or idleness to such a degree as to almost continuous pendency, and where food, clothing, shelter and warmth have been dependent upon the public purse or private bounty. So have they lived in the years of hopeful adolescence and now, at twentyfour or twenty-five years of age, or older, tens of thousands are still without any practical hope of selfsupporting activity, marriage, the establishment of a home, and assumption of their responsibility of carrying the life of this day into the Canada of tomorrow.

Whither Youth?

Closely related, is another problem. Canada is a country whose conditions of development demand at any time, a large supply of voung, vigorous, semi-skilled labour, mobile, ready for immediate transfer anywhere. To this floating supply of man power. the economic collapse brought disintegration. The problem of the non-resident and migrant worker. a characteristic feature of our unemployment situation even in the good years, became graver and more evident when the gears of an accepted mechanism grated.

Many of these youths, many of these non-established men, frustrated and aimless, had become bitter with the years; many of them broken with their experience of idleness and need, but they have come forward in thousands to offer themselves for active defence of this country, and of the principles and ways of life, it cherishes. Yet, in different areas, different varying ratios of rejections

tions are reported.

Public relief departments report large groups of their clients, obviously ineligible because of age or condition, and heavy rejections of others, less obviously unfit; and of still others, because they have more than two children. The voluntary agencies, whose clientele are composed more largely of low income than of wholly dependent groups, report similar conditions, but with considerable enlistments from boys in their families, and of heads of families in younger age groups. But one of the largest of the voluntary agencies in the Dominion reports only 245 men out of 1.505 likely to be at all eligible for active service; another reports that in a test group of 140 families, only 52 could have been considered eligible for enlistmentof these, 13 enlisted: 4 only were conscientious objectors; 35 others were employed and fearful of the uncertainty of ever getting work again, if they gave up; 88 were quite ineligible.

Many of these groups are reported unfit for heavy pressure in speeded-up industrial or agricultural production. The inadequate functionings of democracy have rendered many of its would-be defenders partially incapable of its defence without vigorous measures for their care and conditioning.

These examples of the slow undermining of the ways and vigour of our life, through the growth of insecurity and need in the margin land show what a long extended battle line must be held on the home front.

Challenge to Democracy

Are men and women—particularly young men who see their children without security or opportunity, or those themselves denied the hope of establishment—going to continue to believe in institutions and systems, in which these developments mature? Are they going to accept these conditions as an "emergency" after ten years, through the strains of a long war and, more challenging, in the adjustments of the peace?

This country, the United States of America, the United Kingdom -to take but those whose ways of life are almost identical-have spent more money, have given more of their resources in relieving distress in the last decade than would have been deemed possible ten years ago. But there has been far more money than thought, far emergency action planning, and one result is that, at the close of the decade, there is, in all three countries, a solid core of dependent people, to all the more stable of whom their dependency is irksome, and by which the strength of each nation is pulled down and hampered. If any great group of the peoples of these lands become convinced that the regimentation of life does organize resources, does stabilize production, does-at the cost of certain freedom, it is true—does provide occupation and activity and maintenance for its people, will they—in these increased war strains and the exhaustion following them—not be willing to barter a freedom that does not gear into such assurances, for something that seems to do so? Will there not be grave danger that they may trade an ancient and great birthright for a mess of pottage?

The citizen body of this and other countries were awakening to these threats. They were facing the grim realizations in this continuing and enlarging dependency. But when factory wheels whirr in orders, when fields ploughed to greater crops, and these increased demands and enlistments make-thank God-real dints in several centres on the able-bodied unemployed, comes again the assumption that all is automatically on the up-grade again. Totals of "unemployed" still on relief are contrasted with those dark years for the world from 1932 to 1935, with the slump back of 1937-8. The core of dependency is apt to be overlooked -the transfer of well over 100,000 aged in the last five to six years to old age pensions; the movement of a third of our war pensioners on relief to veterans' allowances; the new category of mothers' allowances covering thousands of dependent mothers and children in two of the provinces; the recent assistance through acreage bonus of perhaps 25,000 to 30,000 prairie familes, who, last year would have been classified as receiving agricultural relief or assistance. The sum

total is that, even the decreases that war has brought—and it is a tragic stimulant—still leave us facing the inescapable fact that freedom of opportunity and self-supporting life, are not yet assured to a great block of our citizens. It will not be assured until and unless the citizen body appreciate that, for over a decade now, its lack has been putting democracy, which is dependent on the happiness and freedom of a people, at bay right on the home front, among an enlarging portion of the population.

Two Roads Open

One danger now is that war stimulation may give us a temporary shot in the arm, and, on this continent in particular, a purely illusory sense of complete economic recovery and social adjustment. But the war may be long, and the war will end. Unless every citizen realizes now that he is living, and has been for some years, in an era of social change in which he must assume definite and intelligent personal obligations, one of two things will happen.

Freedom of the people will disappear in reversion to an increasing measure of restraints and controls, culminating in a new feudalism, a sort of economic vassalage; or, a free people, still strong and restless, will cast out a system that has failed them. Then chaos may overwhelm us, unless there is leadership and sound planning to meet their needs in that day.

It is not for social work to say what broad lines that social Continued on page 32

Calling Council Members to the Toronto Sessions!

I MPORTANT business reports, interesting suggestions on the reorganization of the Council's technical services, new appointments in its personnel, and—the significant concurrent sessions of the seventh biennial Canadian Conference on Social Work, these all call Council members and interested citizens to Toronto for Monday, May 20th to 23rd, 1940. A nation at war looks to its internal defences, manned by the regular troops, the full-time social workers, and enlists in thousands the volunteer citizen cohorts. How social work is holding the line, how adjusting to new and strange strains, in Canada, in the provinces, in your community—it's a vital story. Come and take a part in it!

We Introduce Mr. Frank Bane

The Council considers itself particularly fortunate in the speaker whom it presents Monday on "Social Security in the Modern State".

At a time when the reconciliation of social protection over the whole national area with the requisites of local adminstration and provincial legislation and supervision is a matter of such vital discussion in Canada, Mr. Frank Bane, the Executive Director of the Council of State Governments of the United States, should bring a particularly helpful message.

The Council of State Governments is a clearing house and research centre for state legislatures and special reference bureaux. It also provides the secretariat for the Conference of State Governors, for the National Association of Attorneys-General, and the Na-

tional Association of Secretaries of State, all devices, in the great federal state to the south, to bridge the gap between state diversities and common practices on a federal front.

Mr. Bane has had a singularly rich experience in the study and development of public administration. A Virginian, upon graduation from Randolph-Macon College, Mr. Bane entered the teaching profession, later turning to public welfare, after graduate work in Columbia University.

From 1920 to 1923 he was Secretary of the Virginia State Board of Charities and Corrections. After three years as Director of Public Welfare in Knoxville, Tennessee, he became the first State Welfare Commissioner of Virginia in 1926. Upon the creation of the American Public Welfare Association six

years later, he was appointed its Director and lecturer in the University of Chicago.

During this time, he was a member of the President's Emergency Employment Committee and consultant to the Federal Emergency Relief Administration.

With the establishment of the United States measures on social security, he became the first Director of the Federal Social Security Board, serving there from 1935 to 1938, when he went to his present post.

An able administrator, and a fluent and informed speaker, Mr. Bane will have much to contribute to the Council's Twentieth Meeting, and to the sessions of the Canadian Conference of Social Work, running concurrently.

C.W.

THE AUDIENCE AIRS ITS KNOWLEDGE

Something new in annual meeting programmes was provided lately by the Ottawa Council of Social Agencies when the reading of reports was followed by a half-hour devoted to "Information Please". Questions designed to test the audience's knowledge of Ottawa's social service resources were put by Miss J. A. Maines, the executive secretary of the council. As numbers were drawn, several questions fell to social workers to answer, to the great delight of the "lay" members of the audience.

The necessity for constant interpretation of the place of the Council of Social Agencies was emphasized by the president, Mr. F. W. Berry, who declared that there must be unremitting effort to maintain a proper balance between peacetime, or "all-time", agencies and those active only when the nation is at war.

At the request of the local military authorities, the Ottawa council some time ago set up a committee to co-ordinate welfare work among soldiers' families. Regulations promulgated by the Ottawa Area Commandant require all such activities to be approved by the Council of Social Agencies. Under the direction of Mrs. H. F. H. Hertzberg, head of the council's sub-committee on soldiers' welfare work, the various auxiliary groups of Ottawa units are being federated and it is expected that close relationship with the council will be maintained.

Planning and financing in Ottawa have been brought closer together since the council now has direct representation on the budget committee of the Community Chests.

Some of the achievements of the council during the year were: two courses of lectures for volunteers planned and completed; information given member agencies regarding transients and refugees; a Directory of Social Resources of the city published; planning done for welfare of soldiers' families and recreation for the troops; arrangements completed regarding investigation of Dependents' Allowances; more adequate supervision of girls discharged from Ontario hospitals planned; conferences held with agencies concerning problems; Social Service Exchange, Christmas Exchange and Wellington Community Centre Club operated. The Ottawa Council joined with those of other cities in regard to national planning of welfare services and co-ordination of appeals. A plan for the establishment of a Catholic Family Service Agency was approved by the council.

The Ottawa Community Chests raised \$160,337 for 1940, surpassing their objective of \$160,000 only after the campaign had officially closed. The Protestant Fund received \$107,406 and the Catholic Fund \$52,931.

The Director of the Central Volunteer Bureau, Montreal, discusses the partnership of lay and professional people in present-day social work.

How the 'Spiral' Theory Applies to the Volunteer

Some philosophers contend that history is a spiral, always doubling back on itself, yet advancing as it turns. So when the revolution of the spiral is complete, the old form has come back at a higher stage of development.

Whether or not this conception of history is true, it appears to work out in the matter of volunteers in social work.

Modern social work as distinguished from the almsgiving of the Middle Ages was born of volunteer effort. Volunteers from the British universities, through their own daily sharing of the lives of the poor, founded the settlement movement. Others, seeing the need for organized service to individuals, laid the foundations for the London Charity Organization Society, the great-grandfather of all our case work services. Still others, such as Dr. Barnardo, pioneered in the development of child placing.

Our judgment of those early volunteers is apt to be a little supercilious. They knew so much less than we know. They had no social work jargon. They pauperized their clients, they "reformed" where we prefer to "adjust". They had little conception of such terms as the "need for aftercare". Social service exchanges, referrals between agencies,

By MARY JENNISON

psychiatric examinations, were unknown to them.

We are apt to forget that these early volunteers were actuated by a tremendously sincere and impassioned concern about their fellow men, a concern which is possibly lacking in our more scientific approach.

They Were Path-finders

For their own time, they were the path-finders, in that they, like ourselves, were searching everywhere for a solution, using the facilities at hand and reaching out for new ideas and new developments, in that without their early endeavours the system of social services which we now have could never have been.

Then the spiral dipped. In this new world to which the experiments of Great Britain had carried over, people did not have leisure to be volunteers in the same sense as they could be in the old land. Poor, dear cousin Martha, who was left so badly off, was engaged by the Board at a modest sum (which must never be discussed) to carry out the policies which the Board determined behind closed doors. Or Mrs. De Vere's old family nurse, when the children were grown up, was in-

stalled in the orphanage of which Mrs. De Vere was president. She was not expected to take any part in making plans for the orphanage—she did not consider that she should, nor was she capable of doing so.

The spiral turned again. Some individuals began to see that this business of dealing with the stuff of human nature was a science, that irreparable harm could be wrought by meddling in human lives, that there was a skill in human relationships which did not come from intuition or well-meaningness but from knowledge of psychology and economics and was developed through definite techniques.

A Professional Is Born

So schools of social science, or social service, or later, just plain social work, sprouted here and there. The professional social worker was born. And did she go to town! Faced with an unimagined complexity of problems, she attempted to cover up her own anxiety with an "I know it all" attitude.

The volunteer, as board member, unfortunately from the social workers' point of view, still was in the picture—but to be treated as a necessary evil and be told as little as possible. She was unreliable, she was irresponsible, she cluttered up the office and besides "we cannot allow our sacred relationship with our clients to be disrupted by an untrained person." The era of ultra-professionalism was in full sway.

Again the spiral turned. Professional social workers began to realize that no matter how highly they might rate themselves, their knowledge, their skills and techniques, in the eyes of the community at large they were pretty small pumpkins. They found themselves out on a limb—removed from the community of which they were a part, talking a different language, wringing their hands because Mr. John Public didn't understand about social work.

So once more the spiral turned. What about these members of boards who had seemed to act as a brake on the wheels of progress? They had natural roots in the community. So by devious ways, we reach the new level, where social work is not the prerogative of volunteers in the old sense, nor of professionals in any sense, but of a partnership where the volunteer contributes understanding and support and the social worker contributes technical skills.

The Partners' Obligations

Now in any partnership, each partner has clearly defined obligations and the rule holds true for professional social workers and for volunteers. Some are obligations in common—the need to know what social conditions exist in their own community and across Canada; to recognize that no system of social services whether public or private can or should meet the needs of the 56.2% of our population who earn less than \$1,000 a year; to be aware that better housing, better food and better health protection

could reduce our infant death rate, or the mortality from tuberculosis, rheumatic fever and other curable or preventable diseases, to work in every way possible towards changing conditions so that every citizen of Canada may have opportunity for radiant health, for constructive activity, for adequate education and for security in old age. Anything less than this as an ultimate goal is not good enough.

In this century there has grown up a net-work of privately financed social services which, within the limitations of money available and the vision of their boards, have developed standards of service, demanded professionally trained personnel for their staffs, led the way in struggle for adequate social legislation and government responsibility. Canada's privately financed social services are, with all their limitations, something of which we may well be proud and jealously something we must guard.

A Word of Warning

There is, however, a danger here. To guard the principle that private charity is necessary and must continue is one thing. To guard the unchanging existence of any given form of private charity is something quite different, an attitude which may retard development of social services to the place where they no longer meet existing needs.

For example, in 1932 refusal of private family agencies to refer families for unemployment relief would have placed an unbearable financial problem on the shoulders of community chests and would, moreover, have denied the principle of government responsibility for unemployment relief—a principle which was just beginning to emerge and needed the support of every public-spirited citizen.

The organizations which hold on to institutional care for children in the face of the increasingly recognized better principle of care in family homes are another example of the same type of mistaken loyalty.

We Must Guard Our Gains

We have a second obligation, as citizens, to hold whatever we have in the way of social legislation and adequate relief standards, to make very sure that in the pressure of war economy we do not lose the gains already made.

After the war, unemployment, readjustment to civil life, complications of family relationships, all those and many other problems will be placed on our doorstep. The cost will be enormous. It is essential that we hold what we have of standards of personnel and of organization.

The outbreak of war was marked by an upsurge of enthusiasm for service. Now, if ever, the professional social worker has the opportunity and the responsibility to direct this enthusiasm into useful channels.

Has War Glorified Them?

Take one practical problem facing us to-day. On all sides in the past six months, we have heard

talk of war charities, entertainment for the troops, field comforts, care of refugees, all these new services which because they are new and associated with the war, have a special appeal. But the people we rush to help to-day are the same people who have been around us all these years. We forgot about them when they lived in the tar paper hovel across the tracks. It wasn't pleasant to remember Pat Kelly and his nine kids. Pat is a hero now because he has exchanged his blue overalls for khaki. Did we need a war to help us remember

the Pat Kellys? If so, we have reason to hide our heads in shame.

At the same time as we reach out to meet new needs, we must set our faces against spectacular, dramatic ways of doing things until we are quite sure that the old methods will not do.

This is no easy task. It requires courage and determination and intelligence. However, experience would lead one to believe that these qualities are not lacking among the men and women most closely concerned with social welfare in its broadest sense.

THE CO-ORDINATED CAMPAIGN IDEA

The ambitious plan of the Central Committee of Community Councils and Chests for closely co-ordinated campaigns for the community welfare services across Canada this autumn appears to be making remarkable headway.

The plan, developed in the early part of the year, was based on the desire to bring about as much co-ordination as possible in the appeals of the ordinary welfare services in the different communities across Canada, at a time when Canadian citizens are being hard pressed with recurring appeals for both war and community services.

The dates from October 14th to November 4th have been selected for concentration of as many appeals in as many places as possible, for community welfare services which hold the home line against suffering, sickness, need, child neglect, delinquency, and the numerous threats to the social and economic security of a large section of our population on the home front. Not only have the fifteen Community Funds in our ten largest cities done remarkable work in fitting most of their dates into those three weeks, but at least eight other representative cities which have hitherto lacked community chests are actively exploring the possibility of having united funds this autumn.

From nearly twenty centres comes intimation that local Children's Aid Societies probably will fit their campaigns into this period.

The hope of the agencies and citizens behind the project is that gradually matters will be adjusted so that at one period in the autumn, the community services will appeal, and at one other period, possibly in the spring of the year, the united war charities; thus conserving the time and effort of the Canadian community in its generous givings.

It is encouraging, too, that the dates chosen will be the peak period of nearly 500 campaigns of chests and services in the United States in the name of "Mobilization for Human Needs".

Mr. Taylor Statten recalls outstanding personalities and notable events in the rapid development of the move-

The Genesis of Work with Boys in Canada

Possibly no one in Canada could speak with more intimate personal knowledge of the remarkable developments in boys' work on this continent than Mr. Taylor Statten of Toronto, who can look back over 35 years to his first association with the beginning of boys' work in Toronto. Mr. Statten's association has been no detached one; in a very real way he can say that he has been a part of all that he has met. At the recent annual meeting of the Toronto Big Brother Movement, his reminiscences were so significant that, with the co-operation of the Movement, "WELFARE" offers this summary. Mr. Statten finds that there is better understanding of boy life to-day, less of the cut-and-dried activity, and more of real interests. There has been a trend from the mass to the group movement, and an emphasis on the development of persons rather than programmes.

The first intensive boys' work in Toronto, organized about 1894, was the Boys' Brigade, conducted in three Toronto churches,-All Saints, Broadview Congregational and Bathurst Street Methodist. Out of Broadview Congregational Church came Boys' Brigade No. 11, stimulated by a man who is remembered and revered throughout this continent as an outstanding personality whose fundamental interest was boys' work,-Mr. C. J. Atkinson. Beginning in Regina, Mr. Atkinson came east to Toronto, organized the Boys' Brigade, and, in 1901, the Broadview Boys' Institute. Mr. Atkinson, with the backing of several Toronto philanthropists, acquired seven acres of land and a house known as the Smith Estate. on Broadview Avenue, and it was here that the flourishing Institute developed.

At All Saints Church the Boys' Brigade had developed into a boys' club type of organization specializing in athletics and gymnastics, while Broadview conducted special interest groups. At the Y.M.C.A., the chief activities were the gymnasium and the swimming pool, although the purpose of the programme was evangelical.

It was at this time that the boys' work movement, and the interest and responsibility of the Y.M.C.A. in boys' work, came together. Mr. Statten, who had begun as a volunteer boys' worker from Crocker's Leaders Corps at Central Y.M.C.A. in 1904, in May 1905 became the secretary of the boys' work of the Central Y.M.C.A. while Mr. William Tait was boys' work secretary at West End Y.M.C.A.

Tests and badges came along in 1905, when Ernest Seton Thompson's Woodcraft Indian Boys' programme was taken up by the Y.M.C.A. with such immediate enthusiasm that in May of that year Mr. Statten took a group of boys on a trip to Hamilton when, for a whole week, they were "Woodcraft Indians".

The Scout Movement

To Mr. Statten is due the credit of having introduced Scouting into Toronto, this having occurred after a friend had sent him from England some material descriptive of the Boy Scout movement.

In 1914, the Y.M.C.A. and the churches combined forces in a boys' work board and adopted the Canadian Standard Efficiency Tests for their programme.

Another significant development, the boys' conference, had its origin in 1910 at Orillia, and by 1916 had attained such popularity that a coast-to-coast tour, with large conferences in the provincial capitals, was held. Delegates to conferences made decisions in Christian living which were called "Forward steps".

Soon after came the first Boys' Parliament, held in Toronto in 1917. It aroused so much enthusiasm that the idea was taken up all across the country and Boys' Parliaments and City Boys' Councils were organized far and wide.

Important outgrowths of the work done by the pioneers were Big Brother work, and the Juvenile Court of Toronto. The first was introduced after a group from Toronto heard of the movement from its organizer, Colonel Coulter,

at a Y.M.C.A. boys' work conference held at Lake George, N.Y., in 1907. It happened that for some time the Toronto Y.M.C.A. boys' department had been conducting a Sunday morning service at the Children's Aid Society Shelter on Simcoe Street, the workers being concerned for the boys who were locked* in the cells there. Soon after the Lake George conference they influenced several men to become Big Brothers to boys at the shelter. The movement as it exists to-day was organized about 1911.

The Juvenile Court

Then came the Juvenile Court, organized in 1912. This was a development in which Mr. C. J. Atkinson also played a large part. Several pilgrimages to the Provincial Parliament Buildings and the City Hall had been made by the Boys' Workers' Union with the aim of arousing sentiment in its favour, and the first Juvenile Court in Canada was set up in Toronto. The first judge was Commissioner Starr, who was succeeded by Judge Boyd and later by Judge Mott.

Another enterprise owing its origin to Toronto boys' work is the Rotary boys' programme. It came about in this way. The Broadview Boys' Institute had been turned over to the Y.M.C.A. in 1912, under the name of Broadview Y.M.C.A., and with Mr. C. J. Atkinson as its first secretary. Wishing, however, to concentrate on work with more underprivileged

^{*}That this expression could ever have been applicable to a C.A.S. in Toronto is itself a comment on the growth in standards in children's work in two generations.—Ed.

boys, he presently opened a club at Moss Park. Later, he became secretary of the Federated Boys' Clubs of America, with headquarters in New York City. In 1918, Mr. Atkinson saw a chance to enlist the Rotary Club in boys' work, since it was then anxious to discover opportunities for service. and he thereupon joined the New York City Rotary Club and conducted a one-man campaign to interest the business and professional men of Rotary in his idea. Two years later, in 1920, Mr. Taylor Statten addressed Rotary International convention in Atlantic City on boys' work, and in the autumn he and Mr. Atkinson visited 60 clubs in Canada in 60 days, and many more in the United States. It was not long before all the service clubs were engaged extensively in the new enterprise.

A Large-scale Project

The Toronto Rotary Club embarked on a large-scale programme of boys' work, paid \$3,000 a year for offices, raised a \$15,000 budget, conducted a survey of the boy life of the city and endeavoured to make the citizens "boy-conscious". The walls of the offices were covered with maps showing the location of every boy in Toronto and indicating his boys' club affiliation. The Toronto Boy Life Council was organized, and all boys' work organizations were into co-operate. Barnabas was brought to Toronto by the Roman Catholic Church; Mr. M. M. Cohn organized the Jewish Boy Life Council which later became part of the B'nai B'rith, and the Protestants came together in the Boys' Work Board.

About 1925 a change in the approach to boys' programmes took place. Developing steadily, it soon was easy to perceive four distinct trends. The first was toward a better understanding of boy life, a need which had one of its first advocates in Mr. E. M. Robinson of New York, International Boys' Work secretary. He urged the reading of Stanley Hall's book, "Adolescence"—two huge volumes, and suggested that the workers study psychology with Dr. Abbott of the University of Toronto. Mr. Frank Pratt, general secretary of the Y.M.C.A., was opposed to this plan and advised Mr. Satten to attend the Bible Training School instead. Mr. Statten tried both, and thought the latter more useful for his purpose. In his recent address he recalled that one of the subjects was eschatology and that, fired with enthusiasm, he had gone back and told the boys "what their spirits would look like when they shuffled off this mortal coil".

Present-day Trends

However, it was not long before the Y.M.C.A. Colleges at Springfield and Chicago were teaching psychology applied to work with boys and presently the workers began to appreciate the value of the more scientific approach to character development. In time, educational psychology became recognized as an essential part of the training for leadership in boys' work.

To-day instead of the mass meetings of the earlier Boys' Brigades,

and the large gym classes, and so on, the trend is for work done in small groups under the volunteer leader. The programme emerging from the interest of the individuals in the group has taken the place of the cut-and-dried one with the leader in authority telling the boys what to do. The boy thus is given an opportunity to practice democratic living in his group. It is interesting to know that Mr. Atkinson had organized his Broadview Boys' Institute on this basis, as were the boys' clubs in New York which sponsored self-government schemes. Group work to-day has developed a more scientific approach to self-government in boys' work. It conforms to the demands of democracy in this, Mr. Statten submitted, quoting Dewey to the effect that democracy itself was the frame of reference for group work.

Another trend is toward the development of persons rather than programmes. In the early days the workers were kept busy planning things for boys to do. Boys' workers to-day spend more time studying the individual than they did in the past.

Successful boys' work requires not only volunteer interest but a trained and, as well, a responsible approach. These, Mr. Statten observed in his address, are among the most important contributions that the Big Brother Movement has made.

Instancing one phase of activity, Mr. Statten commended the work in vocational guidance done by the Movement.

Some organizations, having to go to the public for funds, feel that they must be able to speak of quantity, whereas the Big Brother Movement believes rather quality in its work, he remarked. It was his opinion that, because of this insistence on the individual and on the quality approach, all groups in boys' work in Toronto should be prepared to accept the leadership of the Big Brother Movement in community planning for boys, an additional reason in his estimation being that group work agencies had not the time to give to case work.

The Big Brother Movement is a case-working agency dealing with boys, and a centre of reference, away from the court atmosphere, for groups and agencies and for parents.

Baden-Powell, asked in the early stages of the last war, when it would end, said, "The war will be decided in 1934. It will not be decided by victories on the fields of Flanders. The victorious nation will be the one having the highest quality of young men 20 years after the war."

Mr. Statten may be sure that the efforts of the workers with boys during the last war have contributed much to the idealism of the Canada of to-day, when he affirms his belief that the present methods and concept of the work may make an even greater contribution to the Canada of tomorrow. And well may he declare that if ever there were a time when boys' work was needed, it is now.

R.L.S.

Saskatchewan and Its Public Welfare Services

by Harris S. Johnstone,

Commissioner of Labour and Public Welfare

The Province of Saskatchewan was formed in 1905. In those days Governments were concerned principally with maintaining law and order, building roads, schools and hospitals. Little thought was given to the care of the old, the maimed and the unfortunate, since at that time there were few of these individuals. The country was growing rapidly; settlers, capital and equipment were coming in. There was little, if any, destitution. What was probably more important, there was little if any desire on the part of the people to have governments take care of them. The social philosophy which called for state intervention and assistance in all manner of welfare problems was not then in evidence in the rapidly expanding West.

Under these circumstances, it is not surprising that at the time of the formation of the province in 1905, the total expenditures on welfare services for that year amounted to \$11,000 for the support of mental hospitals, a \$40 payment to the Home for the Infirm, slightly over \$100 for the relief of destitution and a sum less than \$500 for the education and maintenance of the blind, or a total expenditure of \$11,640. At that time the province had a population of 258,000 people, about 28% of its present total.

Since 1905, there has been rapid growth both in the population and in the productive capacity of Saskatchewan. There is now a greater number of older persons in the province.

Due to the stimulus of high prices for agricultural products during the first World War, a great amount of submarginal land, suitable principally for grazing, was broken up and put into production. A series of disastrous drought years commencing in 1930, made a great impact upon the unbalanced economic set-up of the province. Continuous strong, drying winds whipping across the prairies did considerable damage to all agricultural lands over which they blew. When moisture did come the lighter, rolling submarginal land benefitted less than the better areas. The province which had expanded so rapidly was unable to take care of the needs of all its citizens.

Welfare costs increased alarmingly. During the last decade the various administrative set-ups handling welfare costs have, through a process of trial and error,

fairly well standardized the agencies by means of which this assistance is distributed. Some of the major welfare services are described in the following paragraphs and tables.

Relief Costs

Relief costs in Saskatchewan have been very heavy throughout most of the past ten years. The combined effect of a world-wide depression and a disastrous drought has been responsible for the great amount of assistance that had to be given to citizens who ordinarily were self-sustaining. Because of the immensity of the problem, relief has had to be administered through various channels.

In the main, relief costs have been borne by three parties, namely, the Dominion Government, the Provincial Government, and the local government (urban municipality, rural municipality, or local improvement district). Throughout the past ten years the respective portions of relief costs borne by each of the three parties has varied considerably.

Prior to July, 1935, in those cases where the local government was financially able to participate, the relief costs were shared equally by the three parties, that is 33 1/3% borne by each.

From July, 1935, to March, 1939, the Federal Government adopted a system of paying to the province a lump sum monthly. The first arrangement was \$200,000 a month and then in December, 1935, it was raised to \$350,000 a month. Since that time the monthly

amount granted by the Dominion has varied considerably.

The Provincial Government in turn enacted agreements with the local governments. Prior to December, 1935, the local governments paid 33 1/3% of the relief costs. Since December, 1935, with the increase in the federal monthly sum. the Provincial Government was able to decrease the local governments' share from 33 1/3% to 20%. Since April 1, 1939, the federal contribution has been changed from the monthly sum basis and now is a contribution amounting to 40% of direct relief costs.

Since December, 1935, with the above described federal assistance available, the urban municipalities, that is the cities, towns and villages, have been required to pay 20% of the direct relief costs. The local government paid local administrative charges and local health costs as well.

In the rural municipalities the costs have been apportioned in exactly the same ratio as with the urban municipalities, except that in the years 1934-35, 1936-37, 1937-38 and 1938-39, the Federal Drought Area was set up, embracing some of the rural municipalities and local improvement districts that had suffered most severely, and in this Federal Drought Area the Federal Government assumed all the costs of relief granted, with the province paying administrative charges.

In the local improvement districts prior to July, 1935, relief

costs were shared 50-50 by the province and the Dominion. From July, 1935, to March, 1939, there has been no definite ratio borne by either party, as during this period the Federal Government contributed a monthly lump sum to all relief costs. Since April, 1939 relief costs in these local improvement districts have been shared 40% by the Federal Government and 60% by the province.

Prior to July, 1935, and since April, 1939, the transient families and single homeless have been taken care of by Provincial Government facilities. the shareable equally by the province and Dominion with the province paying administration charges. In the interval from July, 1935, to April, 1939, there was no distinct apportionment of costs since during that period federal assistance was by way of a definite sum monthly as a contribution to all relief costs.

Destitute transient workers were sent out to farms in the winter months under the respective Farm Improvement and Employment Plans. For several years farmers taking in the transient workers were paid from \$5 to \$10 per month, depending upon the area in which the farmer lived. The worker himself was paid a total amount of \$7.50 per month if he stayed through the season. In the winter season of 1937-38 some 31,948 workers were placed on Saskatchewan farms at a Dominion-Provincial shareable 50-50 cost of \$2,099,244; and in the following winter of 1938-39 when monthly payments to the farmers were discontinued, some 16,350 workers were placed in employment, at a shareable cost of \$637,868. Due to more favourable crop conditions in 1939 the plan has been discontinued this last winter.

Up to the last three years certain medical fees incidental to the care of transient families and single homeless have been paid through the medium of the regular relief set-up. In the last three relief years, however, these medical costs were increased. This was caused by the severe drought depriving many communities of ordinary medical services. A system of grants to physicians in drought areas, on a monthly and mileage basis, was made to ensure that people, no matter how destitute the area, would receive medical care. A system of extra grants was also given hospitals which took over the care of patients from these areas. These health costs were administered by the Medical Relief Branch of the Department of Public Health. The accounts for the same were paid by the Municipal Department through the regular relief channels.

Up to and including 1934-35, relief settlement in the northern area was not segregated from other costs. Commencing with 1935-36 the Northern Settlers' Re-establishment Branch was set up. Further explanation of this work is given later on in this article.

For a number of years now relief has been administered through the Department of Municipal Affairs, Bureau of Labour and Public Welfare, under the specific supervision of a Director of Relief and an office and field staff, at the present time numbering about one hundred persons, but varying considerably from year to year as relief was increased or decreased. Other departments of the government have also assisted in some of the more specialized branches of the work.

The following table gives the total amount of direct relief distributed in the relief years commencing 1934-35 up to the present time. This table includes the various projects described above but does not include the costs borne by the urban and rural municipalities, which costs were considerable.

From the table and the graph which follow, it can be clearly seen that there is a distinct relationship between the amount of relief costs and the total Saskatchewan annual wheat production. As the crop volume goes up, relief costs go down. As the crop volume of wheat goes down relief costs goes up. This table and graph indicate very clearly that wheat is the dominating factor in Saskatchewan's economy.

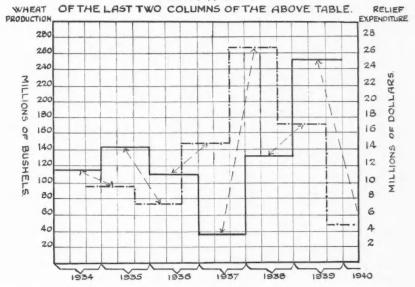
The Trek to the North

The successive crop failures in the grain growing and ranching areas of southern Saskatchewan caused many farms in that area to be abandoned. The farmers and their families went to other parts

RELIEF YEAR SEPTEMBER 1ST TO AUGUST 31ST

Relief Year	Urban muni municipalit district		imp.	 Individuals Assisted in December 	Federal- Provincial Cost	Saskatchewan Wheat Production (Calendar Year)
1934-35	U. Mun. R. Mun. L.I.D.	204 179 20	403	238,217	\$ 9,832,338	1934 Bushels 114,200,000
1935-36	U. Mun. R. Mun. L.I.D.	207 231 20	458	183,645	7,406,629	1935 142,198,000
1936-37	U. Mun. R. Mun. L.I.D.	226 228 20	474	264,102	14,414,147	1936 110,000,000
1937-38	U. Mun. R. Mun. L.I.D.	351 298 20	675	423,958	26,741,898	1937 36,000,000
1938-39	U. Mun. R. Mun. L.I.D.	328 281 20	629	351,550	17,074,831	1938 132,000,000
1939-40 7 months estimate	U. Mun. R. Mun. L.I.D.	232 215 20	467	96,975	4,425,000	1939 250,000,000

GRAPH



WHEAT PRODUCTION _____ RELIEF EXPENDITURE____

of the province and to other provinces in the Dominion. There was a marked exodus of farmers and their families into the northern parkland areas of the province.

The population of the southern part of the province decreased by approximately 25% whereas the population of the north increased by about 20%. The farmers took with them what little livestock and equipment they could transport. They arrived in the north illequipped to start life anew, and ill prepared to make their livelihood by an entirely different method of farming. From year to year the problem was dealt with by the regular relief set-up of the province. It was realized, however, that merely providing these people with relief was not sufficient.

On September 1, 1935, the Northern Settlers' Re-establishment Branch was set up. The costs were shared equally by the province and the Dominion with the former paving all the administrative charges. Relief to sustain the farmers was given where necessary and loans to equip them and get them into production were made. Inspectors were stationed over these areas to supervise and assist in the solution of the many problems that arose in connection with settling about 6,000 families.

Every encouragement was given to the settler to do his own planning and bargaining and work. Government assistance was extended on the basis of and in proportion to the amount of initiative and energy displayed by the farmer. This policy was deliberately encouraged as an antidote to that demoralized feeling that "the state has to look after me", which appears when relief is handed out and no work for or repayment of it is required.

In the $4\frac{1}{2}$ years since its inception the plan has been eminently successful. Farmers have been moved from unsuitable land to more productive soil. Areas which ordinarily would be quite fertile but which were unworkable by reason of spring floods, have been drained and the land put into production. Soil has been analyzed and suitable new crops have been introduced. Roads, schools and hospitals have been built. Small urban centres have been equipped with greater facilities to service the new settlers. Some 6.072 active loans have been set up to assist in re-establishment; and the total of all classes of advances made to date is about \$1,700,000.

As the farmers have progressed in the field of production, governmental assistance to them has been correspondingly reduced. Over 3,500 families out of the number represented by the 6,072 active loans have become self-sustaining, and are not now in receipt of relief. The costs of relief in the first four months of the current relief year shows a reduction of 35% over that for the corresponding period of last year.

This work is carried on under the Department of Municipal Affairs. A Commissioner, together with an office and field staff of 95. is in direct charge of administra-

Old Age Pensions

The provincial enabling act by which Old Age Pensions could be paid was passed in 1928. The first Old Age Pensions were paid in that year also. At this time the Federal Government and the Provincial Government shared equally in the costs of pensions, with the province paying the administrative costs. About three years later the Dominion's share increased to 75%, with the province paying 25%. The Old Age Pensions are administered by a Commissioner, an office staff of 22, and 13 inspectors. The inspectors also work for the Bureau of Child Protection.

The following is a table showing the number of pensioners and the amount of their pensions:

Fiscal Year	Number of Recipients	Total Amount of Pensions
1928-29	3,343	\$ 461,950.00
1929-30	4,537	971,461.00
1930-31	6,227	1,302,727.00
1931-32	7,588	1,679,495.00
1932-33	8,253	1,767,420.00
1933-34	9,280	1,798,467.00
1934-35	10,167	1,974,612.35
1935-36	10,746	2,146,275.00
1936-37	11,440	2,317,870.00
1937-38	11,761	2,399,435.00
1938-39	12,245	2,581,586.00
March 1940	12,567	_

Throughout the eleven year period quoted above, there has been a steady increase in the number of old age pensioners and a corresponding increase in the aggregate amount paid each fiscal year to those recipients.

Pensions for the Blind

Upon the provincial enabling legislation being passed, the Provincial Government started paying pensions to blind persons 40 years of age who had incomes of less than \$440 annually. These pensions commenced in 1938 with the Dominion paying 75% and the province paying 25%, and the province bearing the costs of administration.

The following is a table of the number of blind persons receiving pensions and the total costs of those pensions:

Fiscal Year	Number of Recipients	Total Amount of Pensions
1937-38	54	\$ 5,475.00
1938-39	215	51,526.67
March 1940	249	_

The disparity between 1937-1938, and 1938-1939, is accounted for by reason of the payments being started in the middle of the first fiscal year quoted. Judging by the increase as shown in March, 1940, there will likely be an increasing number of recipients for a time.

Child Protection

The Bureau of Child Protection was inaugurated in 1909. In the

beginning the work consisted of taking care of dependent, neglected and delinquent children. The administrative set-up consists of a Commissioner, an office staff of twelve, and eighteen inspectors. The male inspectors work both for the bureau and for the Old Age Pension Branch.

The work of Child Protection is carried also by four Children's Aid Societies set up in Regina, Saskatoon, Moose Jaw and Prince Albert. Three of these societies have erected and maintained children's shelters. Prince Albert has no children's shelter but its association looks after the children in boarding homes. The Children's Aid Societies are financed by voluntary subscriptions, by board fees which are paid for the maintenance of children in care, and in some cases by grants from the municipality in which the shelter is situated. The four municipalities mentioned also employ probation officers who assist in the work of child welfare. There are two probation officers in Regina, two in Saskatoon and one in Moose Jaw and one in Prince Albert.

The bureau has much to do with the operation of an Industrial School for Boys, in Regina. The Bureau of Child Protection pays the cost of transportation, probation, court fees, etc. The staff of the Industrial School is paid by the Department of Education. The building itself is maintained by the Department of Public Works. Delinquent boys are provided for in this home. From fifty to seventy-five boys are in the institution.

Delinquent girls are sent by the bureau to correctional homes in Manitoba and Alberta. The bureau pays all the costs which include transportation and maintenance, and amount to approximately \$4,500 per year. The average number of girls so cared for is about twenty.

The table opposite gives the total annual costs of the care of delinquent, neglected and dependent children and the education of the blind, and includes administrative charges as well.

In 1917 Mothers' Allowances were started and this became a branch of the work of the bureau. In the administration of Mothers' Allowances, the bureau finds that the majority of mothers in receipt of the same are widows, but the number of beneficiaries where the husband is living but incapacitated, is increasing.

It will be noticed that the number of families and the number of

TOTAL ANNUAL COSTS OF THE CARE OF DELINQUENT, NEGLECTED AND DEPENDENT CHILDREN AND THE EDUCATION OF THE BLIND AND INCLUDES ADMINISTRATION CHARGES.

Year	Amount
1930-31	\$132,857.76
1931-32	123,744.58
1932-33	93,339.29
1933-34	85,361.70
1934-35	82,277.99
1935-36	83,347.26
1936-37	93,301.15
1937-38	113,587.19
1938-39	128,763.24

children assisted has been increasing slightly and steadily throughout the period indicated.

The following is a tabulation of Mothers' Allowances, recipients and expenditures:

MOTHERS' ALLOWANCES, RECIPIENTS AND EXPENDITURES

Year	No. of families	No. of children	Amount Paid in Year	Average paid per child per month
1930-31	Dec. 2140	Dec. 6168	\$ 544,250	\$ 7.512
1931-32	" 2341	" 6524	483,618	5.258
1932-33	" 2410	" 6481	403,915	5.164
1933-34	" 2528	" 6641	407,993	5.104
1934-35	" 2776	" 7234	440,580	5.172
1935-36	" 2969	" 7780	474,120	5.141
1936-37	" 2962	" 7759	484,068	5.187
1937-38	" 3003	" 7840	495,988	5.298
1938-39	" 3020	" 7839	498,048	5.251

Tuberculosis Sanatoria and Mental Hospitals

The three sanatoria in operation are located at Fort San, Saskatoon and Prince Albert, their operation being directed through the medium of a board of directors of the Saskatchewan Anti-Tuberculosis League.

These sanatoria were constructed by the Provincial Government at a total original capital cost of \$2,686,682, the Prince Albert Sanatorium costing just over half of this amount. The Provincial Government, through the Depart-

ment of Public Health, contributes a grant of one dollar per patient per diem, in all of the sanatoria. The amount of this grant varies from year to year, and in the fiscal year of 1938-39 it amounted to \$286,811. All costs of administration of the sanatoria are borne by the league. The cost for the calendar year of 1937 was \$656,660.

Two Mental Hospitals

Two provincial mental hospitals are in operation, one at North

Annual Expenditure of Welfare Services administered by or in Association with the Department of Public Health

	1934-35	1935-36	1936-37	1937-38	1938-39
Administration	\$ 16,258	\$ 13,183	\$ 15,500	\$ 14,328	\$ 18,510
Nursing, sanitation, disease prevention, maternity grants, etc.	193,561	209,286	240,400	252,992	244,281
Statutory grants to hospitals and sanatoria	646,726	659,744	697,525	723,465	742,920
Mental hospitals— administration	871,533	870,313	1,064,929	1,216,310	1,351,104
Capital carrying charges on: 2 mental hospitals, 3 sanatoria, radium	449,340	454,119	456,224*	459,000*	456,165
Grants to charitable institutions	12,900	20,000	14,433	19,400	20,400
Health Services Board	_	760	5,760	4,219	2,687
Saskatchewan Cancer Commission	32,688	35,381	45,984	46,549	48,285
Medical, dental, optical, hospital, drugs and burial relief (expenditures in ex- cess of those included in direct relief statement)	_	_	_	171,681	458,545
	2,223,006	2,262,786	2,540,755	2,907,944	3,342,897

^{*}Approximate

Battleford and the other at Weyburn. The North Battleford hospital was constructed in 1914, the original capital cost being \$2,694,770 and the Weyburn institution was constructed in 1921 at a cost of \$3,778,916. These are the capital costs as carried at May 1, 1937.

Remarks

The arduous experiences of Saskatchewan citizens during the past ten years have not been an unmixed blessing in the respect that they have illustrated very clearly that when one province is in serious difficulties the rest of the Dominion will come to its aid. The citizens of Saskatchewan are deeply appreciative of, and grateful for, the assistance that has been sent to this province by citizens and Governments in other parts of Canada.

This strenuous period has also demonstrated that Saskatchewan, by reason of its normally large productive capacity per capita, is a unit of tremendous importance in the economic life of Canada. When production in Saskatchewan declines, the impact is felt acutely in other parts of Canada. Happily the general picture is now considerably improved.

It is quite likely, therefore, that this trial by ordeal will serve to tighten rather than loosen the bonds of confederation, and will assist in promoting unity, strength and balance in our national life.

CAMP PRIVILEGES FOR SOLDIERS' CHILDREN

CHILDREN of Edmonton soldiers are to receive special consideration insofar as summer camps are concerned. The special committee on summer camps of the Edmonton Council of Social Agencies has announced that the thirteen local camps will enlarge their premises, if necessary, in order to accommodate an unprecedented number of children.

The Edmonton Ladies' Auxiliary of the Canadian Active Service Force, which was set up at the beginning of the year and now has membership of 200, is compiling a list of soldiers' children who should go to camp. This list is to be sent to the Council's special committee, and the children are to be distributed among the camps.

With this beginning, writes Miss Lillian Thomson, executive director of the Edmonton Council, a year-round contact will be established between the auxiliary and the group work agencies, particularly, with reference to the hazards which war creates for soldiers' children.

For the duration of the war, as Miss Thomson points out, the mother of a soldier's children has to act as the sole parent. The women in the Edmonton auxiliary have been particularly impressed by this interpretation of their situation, and many responded eagerly to the suggestion that, as part of their auxiliary work, they set up study groups for reading and discussion of child life, with leadership provided from or found by the Council staff. They can knit while they discuss.

Three Popes of modern times have written on labour and property. Members of the hierarchy in the U.S.A. draw upon encyclicals of Leo XIII, Pius XI and Pius XII in a joint pronouncement.

The Old Guild System in the New Social Order

RE-ESTABLISHMENT "of some form of guild or vocational groups which will bind men together in society according to their respective occupations, thus creating a moral unity", offers the best means for social reconstruction, according to a recently published statement* by the Archbishops and Bishops of the administrative board of the National Catholic Welfare Conference in the United States.

Until the organic nature of society again is recognized and re-established through vocational groups or guilds, these members of the hierarchy affirm, either one of two things must happen. The state must assume all responsibility, that is, become an absolute economic dictatorship, or else the individual remains defenceless and completely overpowered by those who enjoy economic supremacy. Hence the need for a guild or corporative system which will establish sound prosperity and which respects the proper hierarchic structure of The state cannot be society. relegated to the position of a mere policeman or umpire. It has the responsibility of providing for the common good. On the other hand

it may not and should not become totalitarian in attempting to fulfil all social functions in the way of economic planning and direction. It should leave to the smaller vocational groups the settlement of business of lesser importance.

The Guild Plan

The chief qualifications of these vocational groups or guilds are that they are autonomous, embrace whole industries and professions, are federated with other constituent groups, possess the right of free organization, assembly and vote, and that they should dedicate themselves to the common good and, with governmental protection and assistance, function in the establishment of justice and the general welfare in economic life.

The Church, however, does not prescribe any particular form of technical organization of society, just as she does not prescribe any particular political organization of the state, the Archbishops and Bishops write.

The group of extreme individualists or school of economic liberalism, and those who wish to socialize all resources or establish a state collectively, are censured alike in the statement.

If human labour, it is argued, is treated as a mere commodity to be

^{*}The Church and Social Order, (includes discussion and study outlines); published by National Catholic Welfare Conference, Washington, D.C., Price 10 cents.

bought and sold in the open market at the lowest price, then it ceases to fulfil its proper function in society.

"Unfair wages due to a greed for excessive profits and insecurity due to false and immoral economic principles lead directly to undernourishment, bad housing, inadequate clothing, and indirectly to irregular family relations, child delinquency and crime. Excessively long hours of work in some industrial areas and in some industrial processes create dangers to life and limb, impair the health of working men, and impoverish whole families through infection, disease and premature death."

The Roman Catholic doctrine on ownership, property and labour, security, wages, and establishment of social order is restated, and pronouncements on these matters are summarized in the paragraphs which follow.

Rights of Ownership

The Church has always defended the right to own private property, and also to bequeath and inherit it. Ownership has a twofold aspect, one affecting the individual, the other affecting society.

The two great dangers which society faces in the present state of economic organization are, first, the concentration of ownership and control of wealth, and secondly, its anonymous character which results from some of the existing business and corporation law, whereby responsibility toward society is greatly impaired if not completely ignored.

The civil authority must so regulate the responsibility of property that the burden of providing for the common good be equitably distributed, and it has the obligation to adjust ownership to meet the needs of the public good.

In too many instances an undue portion of the income has been claimed by those who have ownership or control of capital, whilst those on the other hand who have only their labour to invest have been forced to accept working conditions which are unreasonable and wages which are unfair. This condition arises from the fact that labour policies have been dictated by false principles in the interests of the owners or capitalists. Secondly, it arises from the fact that labour frequently has had no voice in the regulation or the adjustment of these problems. Labour can have no effective voice as long as it is unorganized. To protect its rights it must be free to bargain collectively through its own chosen representatives. If labour when unorganized is dissatisfied, the only alternative is to cease work and thus undergo the great hardships which follow unemployment.

Two Vicious Principles

The principle that labour should be compensated to such extent only that it remains physically efficient and capable of reproducing itself in new generations of working men, is a vicious principle, devoid of all respect for human dignity and opposed to all sense of social responsibility. That labour should be compensated solely according to the principle of supply and demand reduces labour to the position of a commodity. Such theory or practice is anti-social and anti-Christian.

The principle of force and domination is equally wrong if exercised by labour under certain conditions by means of a monopoly-control. To defend in principle or to adopt in practice the theory that the net result belongs to labour and that capital shall receive only sufficient to replace itself is an invasion of the rights of property. This is only a more subtle form of the contention that all means of production should be socialized.

It is not, however, the excessive claims of labour on the income from industry which constitute the most immediate problem in labour relations to-day, but rather the abuse of power which not infrequently results in violence, riot and disorder. Employers at times abuse their economic power by discriminating unfairly unions, by establishing lock-outs, by importing from outside the community strike breakers who are furnished with arms, and by provoking in other ways ill feeling which precipitates violent disorder. Employees on the other hand allow themselves at times to be misled by men of evil principles so as to engage in the criminal use of violence both against persons and property.

Security and Wages

Social stability rests upon the basis of the individual ownership

of property. There should be more of it, not less of it, if our existing economic system is to remain secure. Workingmen should be made secure against unemployment, sickness, accident, old age and death. The first line of defence against these hazards should be the possession of sufficient private property to provide reasonable security. Industry therefore should provide not only a living wage for the moment but also a saving wage for the future. Individual industries alone, cannot in each single case achieve this objective without invoking the principle of social insurance. Some form of government subsidy seems to be a necessary part of such a programme. A living wage constitutes the first charge on industry.

An important factor making for insecurity is the immense power and despotic economic domination which is concentrated in the hands of a few and that those few are frequently not the owners, but only the trustees and directors of invested funds, who administer them at their good pleasure.

A system which tolerates such insecurity is both economically unsound and also inconsistent with the demands of social justice and social charity. Security of the workingman therefore as against unemployment, old age, sickness, accident and death must be frankly accepted as a social responsibility of industry jointly with society. The economic system must help to achieve security by establishing a fair distribution of income between capital and labour. It must

strive to establish an equilibrium between farm income and city income.

The wage contract itself is not unjust nor in itself vicious as some theorists have contended. It is of course true that a contract between employers and employees would serve the purpose of individual and social welfare more effectively if it were modified by some form of partnership which would permit a graduated share in ownership and profits of business and also some voice in its management. It is not intended that labour should assume responsibility for the direction of business beyond its own competence or legitimate interest; nor has labour a right to demand dominating control over the distribution of profits.

A Proposed Remedy

The remedy lies first in the adequate organization of both employers and employees in their own proper associations and in their joint action; secondly, in adequate regulation and supervision by the state through proper legislative enactment.

A reasonable relationship between wages and prices also is needed in the interests of employment. The first requirement is that the lowest paid workingmen be the first to receive an increase of wages and simultaneously that prices be not raised but excessive profits reduced. The ultimate aim must be a reasonable relationship between different wages and a reasonable relationship between the prices obtained for the products of the various economic groups.

Unless workingmen as a class have sufficient income to purchase their share of the goods which the economic system is capable of producing, the markets will automatically be closed to the sale of goods and idle factories and unemployment are the disastrous result.

Someone once spoke of the Roman Catholic Church as "venerable with age and vigorous with youth". The statement with which the foregoing article deals is terse, vigorous, and couched in the phrase of 1940 while running in the continuity of a centuries-old philosophy. R.L.S.

WELFARE IN A DEMOCRACY . . . Continued from page 8

planning should follow. That lies not within its technical competence nor experience, but it is within its knowledge to describe what life means, and how it is lived by an unfortunately increasing percentage of low-income, borderline, and dependent popula-

tion. And it is within its responsibility to give warning that, right here at home, the ways of life, which have so long been taken for granted, are threatenel, unless they can be made to function better in assuring happiness and security for a free people.

C.W.

ECENT EADINGS eaching the Council's Library

GENERAL-

A Bibliography of Current Publications on Canadian Economics. Prepared by the Editorial Office of the University of Toronto Press, Toronto. February, 1940.

Prices in Canada and Other Countries 1939. Issued as a Supplement to Labour Gazette, February, 1940. Department of Labour, Ottawa.

Canada 1940. The Official Handbook of Present Conditions and Recent Progress. Dominion Bureau of Statistics, Department of Trade and Commerce, Ottawa. 197 pp. 25 cents. This handbook is designed to serve two purposes. To those outside Canada, it will give a well-rounded picture of the Canadian situation from Atlantic to Pacific. In Canada itself, it will help to provide a better basis of information for dealing with current problems.

Canadian Jewish Year Book, 1939-1940. Canadian Jewish Year Book Reg'd. 1403 Bleury Street, Montreal, Que. 352 pp. \$2.50.

WELFARE IN WAR TIME-

Voluntary Social Service in Time of War.

Citizens' Advice and Help Bureaux-What They Are.

General Information for Workers in Citizens' Advice Bureaux.

All three publications of the London Council of Social Service, Emergency Committee, August 1939, 7 Bayley Street, Bedford Square, London, W.C.I., England.

Voluntary Social Service Organizations in Time of War.

Citizens' Advice Notes.

These two publications are issued by the National Council of Social Service, 26 Bedford Square, London, W.C.I., England.

Defence Regulations 1939-Billeting. Ministry of Health, London, S.W.I., Mimeo.

Billeting Regulations. Circular 1857. Ministry of Health, London, S.W.I. August 2nd, 1939. Mimeo.

Billeting Regulations—Billeting of Persons Engaged in Civil Defence, Etc. Circular 1857A. Ministry of Health, London, S.W.I. August 27th, 1939. Mimeo.

Government Evacuation Scheme—Requisitioning. Circular 1857B. Ministry of Health, London, S.W.I. September 16th, 1939. Mimeo.

Government Evacuation Scheme. Circular 1871. Ministry of Health, London, S.W.I. September 12th, 1939. Mimeo.

Government Evacuation Scheme. Circular 1876. Ministry of Health, London, S.W.I. September 21st, 1939. Mimeo.

Government Evacuation Scheme. Circular 1879. Ministry of Health, London, S.W.I. September 29th, 1939. Mimeo.

Defence Regulations, 1939—Taking Possession of Land. Ministry of Health, London, S.W.I. Mimeo.

TRAINING IN SOCIAL WORK-

- Graduate Study in Social Work. Shelby M. Harrison, General Director, Russell Sage Foundation, 130 East 22nd Street, New York City. Reprinted from Proceedings of the Association of Urban Universities. 1939, 11 pp.
- The Montreal School of Social Work (Incorporated). Session 1940-41. Publication available from the School, 3600 University Street, Montreal, Que.

PUBLIC WELFARE ORGANIZATION—

- National Forestry Program—Canada. Reprinted from Forest and Outdoors Magazine, January, 1940. Dominion Forest Service, Department of Mines and Resources, Ottawa. 36 pp. Illustrated.
- Standards for Periodic Publications of Bureaus of Research and Statistics. Mary Ross.

 American Statistical Association, 1626 K Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 1939.

 10 pp. 5 cents.
- State and Local Public Welfare Agencies. Marietta Stevenson and Alice MacDonald. American Public Welfare Association, 1313 East 60th Street, Chicago, Ill. 1939. Mimeo. 109 pp. 60 cents. An organizational and functional analysis of state and local agencies administering public welfare functions.
- Rural Relief and Recovery. Rupert B. Vance. United States Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 1939. 32 pp. This pamphlet is the third of a series, designed to present reliable non-technical information on social problems of general interest; it adds to the very small store of studies on rural organization.
- The Unemployment and Agricultural Assistance Act 1939—Material Aid and Civic Improvements. Dominion-Provincial Agreements with the various Provinces. Dominion Department of Labour, Ottawa.
- Some Dominion Social Legislation. Harry Hereford, Dominion Commissioner on Unemployment Relief. One of a course of lectures, February, 1940, under the auspices of the Ottawa Council of Social Agencies, Ottawa. Mimeo.
- Report on the Administration of Old Age Pensions in Canada under the Provisions of the Old Age Pensions Act for the Fiscal Year ended March 31, 1939. Department of Finance, Ottawa. 1939.

COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION—

- Conference Planning and Management. Frederick C. Mosher. Public Administrative Service, 1313 East 60th Street, Chicago, Ill. 1939. Mimeo. 24 pp. 50 cents. A Check List for Association Executives, with a brief bibliography on conference and discussion methods appended.
- The Nature of Community Organization. A record of a round table discussion for Teachers of Community Organization under the auspices of the Sub-Committee on Community Organization of the Curriculum Committee of the American Association of Schools of Social Work; Mayflower Hotel, Washington, D.C., January 26th, 1940. American Association of Schools of Social Work, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pa. Mimeo. 6 pp.
- Community Chest by W. J. Cameron. A Talk given on the Ford Sunday Evening Hour on November 5th, 1939. Number 7 of the 1939-40 Series broadcast over the Nation-Wide Network of the Columbia Broadcasting System from Detroit. Ford Motor Company, Dearborn, Mich.

FAMILY WELFARE-

The Family as the Threshold of Democracy. White House Conference on Children in a Democracy. Washington, D.C. January 18-20, 1940. Mimeo. 33 pp.

- Economic Resources of Families and Communities. White House Conference on Children in a Democracy. Washington, D.C. January 18-20, 1940. Mimeo. 27 pp.
- Economic Aid to Families. White House Conference on Children in a Democracy. Washington, D.C. January 18-20, 1940. Mimeo. 33 pp.
- Social Case Work in Practice—Six Case Studies. Florence Hollis. Family Welfare Association of America, 122 East 22nd Street, New York, N.Y., 1939. 313 pp. \$2.50. The six case studies in this book are presented in the hope that they will add to the skill of case workers in assisting clients to deal more successfully with the realities of their lives. Students of case work will find this book of concrete, practical value as a means of self-study in the improvement of case work technique.

BUDGETTING-

- Quantity and Cost Budget for a Single Working Woman. Prices for San Francisco, March 1939, but elements included can be "marketed" anywhere. Heller Committee for Research in Social Economics, University of California. University of California Press, Berkeley, Calif. 1939. Mimeo. 10 pp. 15 cents.
- Quantity and Cost Budgets for Four Income Levels. Prices for San Francisco, March 1939, but again the bases can be utilized in estimating costs in any community. Heller Committee for Research in Social Economics, University of California. University of California Press, Berkeley, Calif. 1939. Mimeo. 96 pp. 75 cents. I. Family of an Executive; II. Family of a Clerk; III. Family of a Wage Earner; IV. Dependent Families or Children.

CHILD CARE AND PROTECTION-

- Children in a Democracy by Gertrude Springer and Kathryn Close. Article in "Survey Midmonthly", February, 1940.
- Social Services for Children. White House Conference on Children in a Democracy. Washington, D.C. January 18-20, 1940. Mimeo. 36 pp.
- Democracy for Children by T. Arnold Hill, Director, Department of Industrial Relations, National Urban League. Article in "Social Work Today", February, 1940.
- Child Welfare Services in Rural New York State. First Annual Report of the State-Federal Program for Child Welfare Services in Rural Areas in New York State, July 1, 1937—June 30th, 1938. State of New York Department of Social Welfare, April 1939.
- Some Considerations of the Place of Case Work in an Agency That Offers Care to Children. Issued by the Director of Child Welfare for the Province of Nova Scotia. Mimeo. 6 pp.
- Tenth Annual Report of the Director of the Mothers' Allowance Act—Province of Nova Scotia for the year ending November 30th, 1939. King's Printer, Halifax. 1940.

GENEVA PUBLICATIONS

- Study of the Legal Position of the Illegitimate Child, League of Nations, 1939, 194 pages, \$1.00. Historical outline; different conceptions of the family; legal and civil status of the illegitimate child in various countries; legal protection of the child—registration, acknowledgment, re-establishment of legitimate status, legitimation by subsequent marriage of parents, inheritance rights, guardianship rights, maintenance; legal protection of the mother; measures provided in social insurance laws; special social welfare measures; statistical information.
- The Placing of Children in Families, League of Nations, 1939: Vol. 1, 154 pages, \$0.75—Fundamental principles of child welfare; principles underlying the placing of children in care outside their own homes; principles adhered to in various countries; characteristic developments in different systems; organization of services for the placing of children in families; general conclusions.

Vol. 11, 241 pages, \$1.25—Descriptive summaries of services in different countries, including Canada.

A Standard text of high quality toward the preparation of which Canadian social workers made a considerable contribution.

- Methods of Rehabilitation of Adult Prostitutes, League of Nations, 1939, 157 pages, \$0.80. How facilities for assistance are made known; classification of cases; institutional training; assistance in other forms—police, social services, probation, voluntary organizations; results obtained by these forms of assistance; general principles of rehabilitation; chief obstacles; conclusions and recommendations. This volume is the third in a series of four studies. Earlier studies were: "Prostitutes: Their Early Lives", 140 pages, \$0.75—case histories indicating features common to the childhood of many prostitutes; and "Social Services and Venereal Disease", 66 pages, \$0.30—a study of the treatment of venereal disease in various countries. This second volume is temporarily out of print, but orders for it will be taken and filled when possible.
- Urban and Rural Housing, League of Nations, 1939, 159 pages, \$0.80. Development of housing policy; general aspects of the housing problem; housing shortage and its causes; standards of housing; financial questions; the rural housing question; actual conditions in ten countries, including a section on urban housing in Canada.
- Facilities for the Use of Workers' Leisure During Holidays, Geneva, International Labour Office, 1939, 96 pages, \$0.75. Regulations on workers' holidays with pay; bodies engaged in combined action to provide facilities for workers' holidays; nature of facilities for workers' holidays; findings of Committee on Recreation; discussion by Governing Body of the International Labour Office.
- The Minimum Wage, Geneva, International Labour Office, 1939, 257 pages, \$1.25. A survey of conditions in Australia, Belgium, Czechoslovakia, France, Great Britain, Ireland, New Zealand, Peru and the U.S.A. Development and present state of legislation; problems encountered in administering laws.
- The Organization of Labour Inspection in Industrial and Commercial Undertakings, Geneva, International Labour Office, 1939, 419 pages, \$2.00. Origins and development of factory inspection; labour inspection; enforcement of arbitration awards and collective agreements; organization of inspectorates; the inspecting staff; powers; measures to enable inspectors to carry out their duties; enforcement proceedings; obligations of labour inspectors; collaboration with employers and workers; methods and standards of inspection; labour inspection reports; bases for international regulation of labour inspection.
- The Law and Women's Work, Geneva, International Labour Office, 1939, 590 pages, paper \$3.00, cloth \$4.00. Methods of regulating women's work; public administrative departments dealing with the employment of women; maternity protection; hours of work; night work; employment on unhealthy, heavy and dangerous work; employment in work involving moral dangers; regulation of the right to employment; wage regulation; differential treatment of insured women under social insurance schemes; the legal position of women under social insurance schemes; the legal position of women as professional workers; bearing of the civil and political status of women on the situation of women as workers; problems induced by the inequality of men and women in the matter of political status. Frequent references throughout to the position of women in various parts of Canada.

These and other publications of the League of Nations and International Labour Office, Geneva, may be procured in Canada from the International Affairs Literature Service, League of Nations Society,

124 Wellington Street, Ottawa.

Nous avons ici la preuve que le proverbe qui dit "bonne semence fait bon grain", est toujours vrai.

A Montreal On Donne sans Compter pour les Oeuvres

La Fédération des Oeuvres de Charité canadiennes-français de Montréal a tenu en avril dernier sa huitième campagne annuelle. Les chiffres atteints ont dépassé les plus belles espérances. Alors que l'objectif était de \$441,500, la somme recueillie s'élevant à \$460,739 le 17 avril 1940.

Nous nous devons de mentionner que la Fédération a fait son appel dans des conditions particulièrement difficiles. Nombre d'autres associations avaient mené leurs campagnes presqu'immédiatement avant celle de la Fédération. Les auxiliaires de cette dernière ont déployé dans leur travail un dévouement, une tenacité qui ont été magnifiquement récompensés. Les organisateurs et les auxiliaires de cette campagne ont droit à nos plus vives félications.

De l'autre côté de l'océan, M. le Colonel de Martigny a dû se réjouir de ce succès sans précédent. Il peut se dire qu'il a vraiment établi la Fédération des Oeuvres de Charité canadiennes-françaises sur une base solide, puisqu'au cours des années qu'il en a été le directeur, il a su lui un élan, tel, que maintenant ses collaborateurs sont à même de continuer l'oeuvre si bien commencée, et de la faire progresser de plus en plus.

FEDERATION DES FEMMES CANADIENNES-FRANCAISES

Les jeudi et vendredi, 25 et 26 avril dernier, la Fédération des Femmes Canadiennes-Françaises tenait à Ottawa sa convention annuelle. Nombreuses étaient les déléguées venues d'un peu partout. Un déjeuner tenu au Château Laurier marqua les débuts de cette convention, et fut suivi d'une intéressante conférence donnée par son Excellence Mgr Alexandre Vachon, archevêque-coadjuteur d'Ottawa.

Les autres séances d'études furent tenues à l'Institut Jeanne d'Arc, et les rapports annuels du bureau national, des différentes sections furent successivement présentés. Leur lecture révéla que les activités de la Fédération sont nombreuses: elle fait sienne toutes les bonnes causes. Notons surtout l'excellente collaboration qu'elle apporte aux oeuvres sociales civiles, et aux oeuvres de guerre: elle prête des auxiliaires qui sollicitent pour les Caisses de Bienfaisance, et par contre elle coopère dans une très grande mesure avec la Croix-Rouge.

Les membres de la Fédération ont réélu comme présidente nationale pour la vingtseptième année consécutive, leur distinguée fondatrice, Mme P.-E. Marchand, d'Ottawa.

The Intelligence Test and How It Operates

7 HAT does the intelligence test do for us which we cannot do for ourselves? It isolates mental capacity from the complex of characteristics which go to make up a child. None of us has ever witnessed intelligence in action. We see only behaviour achievement through which intelligence operates. Like "watching the wind" from a closed window and guessing as to the way it blows by the waving trees and the scattering of the leaves, we watch the direction of the child's achievement and guess as to his intellectual capacity. But, there are always other factors at work in any achievement which confuse the issue and may lead our judgment astray.

Every piece of learning is affected by previous learning, that is, by general experience and by specific practice. Thus, other things being equal, the child who has had most practice previous to the moment of achieving will achieve most.

However, intelligence and practice alone do not necessarily lead to achievement. There must be, in addition, effort—a will to achieve—a motive for which the achievement brings satisfaction.

So, the child's achievement in the classroom is the combined result of his previous experience,

his present effort and his intellectual capacity. In order to fully understand the child and to direct his progress, we need to know the extent to which he is applying these three mainstays of learning. We can guess but are all too frequently wrong. Mental measurement is our means of estimating intellectual capacity. Thus, we learn the limits beyond which the child cannot achieve. Knowing these limits we are enabled to judge the part being played by effort and by experience which working together determine the extent of achievement within the limits set by mental capacity. Finally, by a careful direction of these two, namely, effort and experience, the child's achievement may be brought up to capacity and this level maintained.

The Binet Test

The most widely used, since it is the most accurate mental test, is the "Binet test". This test, originated by a French psychologist, Binet, in 1904, has undergone continual revision since its inception on the basis of results collected from the world over. The year 1937 brought out another main revision, "The New Revision of the Stanford-Binet Test".

The Binet test is composed of tasks and questions. These are divided into groups of six, giving a total of 17 sections—a section for each age level from two to sixteen years—plus three adult sections. The test items form a varied assortment—a medley of tasks chosen on the basis of one general criterion, namely, that they tax mental capacity and are proven to differentiate degrees of this capacity.

Originally Binet selected a number of tasks which he had found in practice distinguished mental differences. He gave these to 200 children ranging from 3 to 15 years. Each test was placed at the age level where two-thirds to threequarters of the children of that age passed the test (more failing at the lower age and less at the next age level). Many corrections have followed this first effort but the principle remains the same. A child who passes the tests of any particular age level is equal in capacity to two-thirds to threequarters of the children of that age-in other words, to the "majority" or "normal" children of that age.

How the Test Works

In short, a mental test gives a systematic comparison between any one child's performance and what has been found to be the performance of the majority of other children.

How is the child's capacity estimated? Each test passed gives a score of two months, making a total score, for each set, of twelve months or one year. The child is given all the tests at each age level (usually beginning at the set one year below his age in years) until he gets a complete score at one level and fails completely another. The first year at which he receives full credit is his "basal age". Thus, a five year old getting full credit at the four year level would receive a score of 48 months. To this are added two months for each subsequent test passed. The total score is his mental age. This mental age means that his performance is equal to that of the majority of children of that age in years. To determine whether he is highly intelligent, normal or low in intelligence we must compare his mental age and his age in years. Thus a five year old with a M.A. of 4 years is obviously low, with an M.A. of 6 years is high. In order to simplify our explanation, the I.Q. has been devised. If the M.A. and age in years are equal then the ratio of M.A. to age is unity, which if multiplied by 100 (to avoid possible decimals) gives an intelligence quotient of 100. (This further simplified = I.Q. 100). Similarly, an I.Q. of 90 indicates that the ratio of M.A. to age is something below unity or that the child's mental age is less than his age in years.

The I.Q. then is no magic figure. It is a simple but ingenious way of indicating how a child's mental capacity compares with that of other children of his age and is the outcome of experimental observation of the performance of many thousands of children.

Is It a True Measure?

In order to minimize the effect of effort and practice on test performance, tasks were chosen which require a minimum of effort at the age level where they are placed. Thus, a child must display an extreme lack of effort in order to affect his performance, while a high degree of effort will not better his performance.

Similarly, the tasks of any one level require for solution only the amount of practice which any normal child of that age would have had. (For instance, naming 4 colours falls at the five year level. No normal child could have lived for five years without having learned the names of these four colours.)

But there are extremes in lack of attentive effort and extremes in experience which would affect test performance and therefore I.Q. This demands than an I.Q. always be understood in the light of other clinical information. At the Nursery School and Kindergarten age when the child is still learning to attend and when his very youthfulness makes for inconsistencies in previous experience, these two factors affect test performance more frequently than at the older age levels. At the early

age levels, therefore, high, and more particularly, low figures need careful interpretation and final judgments must wait on further testing of the child.

But always mental test results tell us something which aids our plan of educational guidance for the young child. With the knowledge we gain we can evaluate the child's achievements in our classroom as good, bad or indifferent according to potential capacity and can so guide effort and practice in mental activities that maximum learning and achievement are attained.

The next article on this subject will discuss Intelligence—Its Guidance in the Nursery School and Kindergarten.

NOTES

NATIONAL FEDERATION gratefully expresses its appreciation to Mr. George Brigden, Brigdens Limited, Toronto, for his very generous gift in presenting the finely illuminated inscriptions in its Memorial Book. These inscriptions, in exquisite colour and individual design, have most vividly preserved the names of our honoured dead.

The book was dedicated at the biennial convention of National Federation held at the Royal York Hotel, Toronto, in October, 1939, and many members expressed appreciation of the beautifully illuminated pages.

NOREEN D. DORRIEN, Chairman, Memorial Committee.

BOOK NEWS

- McLaughlin, K. L. Selected References in Kindergarten-Primary Education. Elem. School J., 39: 623-628. 1939. Thirty-nine studies, selected and annotated.
- Zilliacus, Laurin. A Finnish Schoolmaster and the Crises of our Time. Progressive Education, March, 1940. The material given here is an excerpt from a statement prepared by Mr. Zilliacus before he returned to Finland to enter National Service.
- Alpert, Augusta. The Pre-School Child's Quest for Knowledge. Progressive Education, March, 1940. "The alert teacher knows that the curiosity of her children is the most precious stock-in-trade of the classroom."
- Isaacs, Susan. The Uprooted Child. The New Era, March, 1940. The aim of such papers is to further the well-being of evacuated children and therefore the success of the evacuation scheme.





The Canadian Welfare Council

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